

Inner Product Spaces: Part 1

Let V be a real or complex vector space, i.e., a vector space over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . An **inner product** on V is a function of $V \times V$ into \mathbb{R} if V is real and into \mathbb{C} if V is complex such that, denoting the value of this function on the pair $(u, v) \in V \times V$ by $\langle u, v \rangle$, the following properties hold:

1. $\langle au + bv, w \rangle = a \langle u, w \rangle + b \langle v, w \rangle$;
2. $\langle u, v \rangle = \overline{\langle v, u \rangle}$;
3. $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$ with equality iff $u = 0$.

Hence, for all $u, v, w \in V$, $a, b \in K$, we have $\langle u, av + bw \rangle = a \langle u, v \rangle + b \langle u, w \rangle$ if $K = \mathbb{R}$ and $\langle u, av + bw \rangle = \bar{a} \langle u, v \rangle + \bar{b} \langle u, w \rangle$ if $K = \mathbb{C}$. If V is real we have $\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle$.

A vector space together with an inner product is called an **inner product space**. Any subspace of an inner product space is an inner product space.

The **norm** or **length** of $u \in V$ is defined to be the unique real number $\|u\| \geq 0$ such that $\|u\|^2 = \langle u, u \rangle$. We have $\|u\| = 0 \iff u = 0$ and $\|au\| = |a|\|u\|$ for any scalar a . A vector of norm 1 is called a **unit vector** or a **normalized vector**. Any non-zero vector u can be normalized, i.e. transformed into a unit vector, by multiplying it by $1/\|u\|$. Two vectors u, v are said to be **orthogonal** if $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$. Note that $\langle u, v \rangle = 0 \iff \langle v, u \rangle = 0$.

Example 1. The vector space \mathbb{R}^n together with the inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n$$

is a real inner product space.

Example 2. The vector space \mathbb{C}^n together with the inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x_1\bar{y}_1 + x_2\bar{y}_2 + \cdots + x_n\bar{y}_n$$

is a complex inner product space.

Example 3. The vector space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ together with the inner product

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij}b_{ij} = \text{tr}(A^t B)$$

is a real inner product space. Note that when $n = 1$ we have $\langle A, B \rangle = A^t B$.

Example 4. The vector space $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, together with the inner product

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij}\bar{b}_{ij} = \text{tr}(A^t \bar{B}),$$

is a complex inner product space where $\bar{B} = [\bar{b}_{ij}]$ is the **conjugate** of the matrix $B = [b_{ij}]$. We have

$$\overline{aA + bB} = \bar{a}\bar{A} + \bar{b}\bar{B}$$

and $\overline{AC} = \bar{A}\bar{C}$. Note that in the case $n = 1$ we have $\langle A, B \rangle = A^t \bar{B}$.

Example 5. The vector space $C([a, b])$ of real-valued continuous functions on the interval $[a, b]$ of \mathbb{R} together with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t)g(t)dt$$

is a real inner product space.

Example 6. The vector space $C_{\mathbb{C}}([a, b])$ of complex-valued continuous functions on the interval $[a, b]$ of \mathbb{R} together with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t)\overline{g(t)}dt$$

is a complex inner product space. A function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ can be uniquely written in the form $f = f_1 + if_2$ with f_1, f_2 real-valued (the real and imaginary parts of f). The function f is said to be continuous if f_1 and f_2 are continuous and for such a function we define

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt = \int_a^b f_1(t)dt + i \int_a^b f_2(t)dt.$$

Theorem 1. (Pythagoras) If V is an inner product space and $u, v \in V$ are orthogonal then

$$\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2.$$

Proof. $\|u + v\|^2 = \langle u + v, u + v \rangle = \langle u, u \rangle + \langle u, v \rangle + \langle v, u \rangle + \langle v, v \rangle = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$ if $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$. □

Theorem 2. If V is an inner product space and $u, v \in V$ with $u \neq 0$ then $c = \langle u, v \rangle / \langle u, u \rangle$ is the unique scalar c such that $v - cu$ is orthogonal to u .

Proof. $\langle v - cu, u \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle - c \langle u, u \rangle = 0 \iff c = \langle u, v \rangle / \langle u, u \rangle$. □

Theorem 3. (Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality) If V is an inner product space and $u, v \in V$ then

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|.$$

If $u \neq 0$, we have equality iff v is a scalar multiple of u .

Proof. Without loss of generality we may assume $u \neq 0$. If $c = \langle u, v \rangle / \langle u, u \rangle$ we have $v = v - cu + cu$ with

$$\|v\|^2 = \|v - cu\|^2 + \|cu\|^2 \geq \|v - cu\|^2 = \|v\|^2 - 2c\langle u, v \rangle + c^2\|u\|^2 = \|v\|^2 - 2c\langle u, v \rangle + c^2\|u\|^2$$

with equality iff $v = cu$. □

If u, v are non-zero vectors in a real inner product space V there is a unique real number θ with $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ such that

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\| \|v\|}.$$

The real number θ is called the angle between u and v . We have

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \|u\| \|v\| \cos(\theta)$$

and so u, v are orthogonal iff $\theta = \pi/2$.

Example 7. The functions $f(x) = \sin(x)$, $g(x) = \cos(x)$ in $C([0, 2\pi])$ are orthogonal since

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \sin(x) \cos(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin(2x) dx = 0.$$

The reader will check that $\|f\| = \|g\| = 1/\sqrt{\pi}$.

Theorem 4. (Minkowski's Inequality) If V is an inner product space and $u, v \in V$ then $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$.

Proof. $\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 + \langle u, v \rangle + \langle v, u \rangle \leq$ and

$$\langle u, v \rangle + \langle v, u \rangle \leq 2|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq 2\|u\|\|v\|$$

so that $\|u + v\|^2 \leq \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 + 2\|u\|\|v\| = (\|u\| + \|v\|)^2$. □

Example 8. If $x, y \in K^n$ with $K = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} we have

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right| \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i + y_i|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Example 9. For $K = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} we let

$$\ell_K^2 = \left\{ x \in K^\infty \mid \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |x_i| < \infty \right\}.$$

Using the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality in K^n we see that ℓ_K^2 is an inner product space with inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i.$$

If u, v are vectors in an inner product space V , one defines the distance between u and v to be $d(u, v) = \|u - v\|$. This distance has the usual properties of the ordinary distance function on R^2 or R^3 , in particular, it satisfies the triangle inequality

$$d(uv) \leq d(u, w) + d(w, v)$$

for any $u, v, w \in V$. A sequence $(u_n)_{n \geq 1}$ of vectors of V is said to converge to a vector $u \in V$ if $\|u - u_n\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. A convergent sequence is also a Cauchy sequence, i.e., $\|u_n - u_m\| \rightarrow 0$ as $m, n \rightarrow \infty$. If every Cauchy sequence converges, the inner product space V is said to be a **Hilbert space**. The spaces K^n , $K^{m \times n}$ and ℓ_K^2 are examples of Hilbert spaces.